#### DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 341 270 FL 020 040

AUTHOR

Clark, Ellen Riojas

TITLE

The State of the Art in Research on Teacher Training

Models with Special Reference to Bilingual Education

Teachers.

SPONS AGENCY

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages

Affairs (ED), Washington, DC.

PUB DATE

Sep 90

NOTE

32p.; In: Proceedings of the Research Symposium on Limited English Proficient Students' Issues (1st, Washington, DC, September 10-12, 1990); see FL 020

030.

PUB TYPE

Speeches/Conference Papers (150)

EDRS PRICE

MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS

\*Bilingual Education; Elementary Secondary Education;

\*English (Second Language); Higher Education;
\*Language Teachers; \*Limited English Speaking;
\*Teacher Education; \*Teaching Skills; Trend

Analysis

#### ABSTRACT

Teacher training is examined from two viewpoints: (1) how bilingual teacher education has evolved over the years; and (2) what all teachers, especially bilingual and English-as-a-Second-Language teachers, should know and be able to do when working with language minority, culturally different students. The first part of the paper describes the state of the art in bilingual teacher education from a historical perspective, including linguistic, cognitive, cultural, and social dimensions. The second part describes the needed teaching competencies based on a redefinition of the student population. More than 60 specific attitude, knowledge, and skill competencies are identified for two categories: cultural/linguistic incorporation and community participation. Skills related to curriculum, methodology, classroom management, and assessment are also presented. Contains 55 references. (LB)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made

\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*

\* from the original document.

# THE STATE OF THE ART IN RESEARCH ON TEACHER TRAINING MODELS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHERS

# Ellen Riojas Clark

## INTRODUCTION

The changing makeup of the student population in education settings in the United States requires that the training of teachers be redefined. Demographic studies indicate that immigration patterns have changed and will continue to change the school and student population of the United States (Waggoner, 1988, U.S. Department of Commerce, 1988). The data suggests that multicultural and bilingual populations will play a stronger and a more pronounced role in the schools. Students from Asian, Slavic, Arabic, and Spanish-speaking countries are adding to the multicultural diversity of class-rooms in all parts of the country. The needs of students in the classrooms of today and tomorrow will require that teachers have the attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary for addressing the multicultural and multilingual demands of the schools.

In addition, disparity between city and suburban schools is becoming more apparent. Research shows a strong relationship between high minority enrollment, low income, low levels of parental education, and low school and test performance (Intercultural Development Research Association, 1990). The continuing increase in numbers of students from Spanish and other language backgrounds in the schools, the high number of minority students dropping out of school, and the achievement levels of culturally and linguistically different students affects how teachers are trained.

States are now becoming concerned with the quality of their education programs and are specifically legislating programs that are designed to improve education for the public school populations in their regions. Of specific concern to many states is the education of minority and linguistically different students (California State Department of Education, 1977, TEA, 1983).

The overall shortage of teachers also reflects a critical shortage of trained personnel equipped to work in bilingual, bicultural settings. The issue of training and retraining teachers to work in areas of special need has become paramount. Teacher preparation programs need to be reassessed, redefined, and redesigned in order to train school personnel for the dynamics of the student population now reflected in the schools, the community, and the classroom.

**BEST COPY AVAILABLE** 

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)
This document has been reproduced as receive from the person or organization origination.g. it

Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality

 Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OFSI intesting or colors.





The process of defining teacher training for a multicultural world has to be based on an understanding of and an appreciation for multiculturalism as a positive force in American education. Educational, socioeconomic, and linguistic histories of ethnic minority groups require teachers to have a stronger understanding of the sociocultural realities that impact education in multicultural settings.

#### **PURPOSE**

For the purpose of this paper, teacher training will be addressed through an examination of the following two key questions:

- how bilingual teacher education has developed over the years
   and
- what should all teachers know and beable to do when working
  with minority students, and what should teachers in bilingual
  education know and be able to do with respect to educating
  linguistically and culturally different students?

The first section of the paper will describe the state of the art in bilingual teacher education from a historical perspective and describe the linguistic, cognitive, cultural, and social dimensions. The second part will describe the needed teaching competencies based on the redefinition of the student population.

## OVERVIEW OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF BILINGUAL FDUCATION

## Teacher Training Program

The historical overview of bilingual education is meant to provide information on the events that led to the implementation of bilingual education teacher training. The history of bilingual education in the United States is frequently divided into two periods: pre-World War I and post-1960 (San Miguel, 1990, August & Garcia, 1988). Prior to the 1960s, little attention was given to the language needs of non-English-speaking students. The neglect of language minority children's needs in schools led to federal intervention. But it was not until the midsixties that the federal government intervened as a result of pressure from ethnic minority groups and parents through the judicial system. Up until that time, language minority children attending public schools were generally instructed solely in English. Materials, curricula, and teaching methods used were r.ot designed for English-speaking students. Teacher training programs in universities and colleges were designed to train teachers in pedagogy that utilized the majority language and culture.

As a result of the civil rights movement in the 1960s, a climate of social change was incorporated and the rights of language minority children became an issue. Ethnic groups motivated and spurred the passage of legislation such as the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, which focused on the special needs of minorities (Ovando and Collier, 1985, p. 26).

The Civil Rights Act required that school districts that received federal monies must ensure equal access of national origin minority children to public education (Ambert and Melendez, 1985). The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 allocated funds for English as a second language (ESL) instruction and transitional bilingual education programs. ESEA was amended by Congress in 1965 with the passage of the Bilingual Education Act (BEA) of 1968, commonly known as Title VII.

Title VII, as originally conceived, was created to meet:

the special education needs of the large numbers of children of limited English-speaking ability in the United States. Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance to local education agencies to enable them to develop and to carry out new and imaginative elementary and secondary programs designed to meet these special education needs (P.L. 90-247).

The purpose of bilingual education as stated in the Bilingual Education Act, was to:

(a) provide English language skills,

(b) maintain the native language skills, and

(c) support the cultural heritage of the students (Castellanos, 1983, pg. 83).

This was interpreted by proponents of bilingual education to mean that bilingual children should develop equal competence in English and in their native language and that they should understand and appreciate their own culture and others. Therefore, teachers in the maintenance bilingual programs should be proficient in both of the languages and have a deep understanding and acceptance of the students' cultures (Secada, 1990).

Another interpretation of the BEA was that the purpose of bilingual education was to improve the student's English-speaking ability so that they could assimilate into a mainstream classroom as soon as possible. According to this view, it is felt that the use of the first language in the classroom will retard the students' acquisition of English. Proponents of this view argue that if



children are deficient in English, they need instruction in English and not in their first language. Teachers must then use English and be able to utilize ESL strategies to quickly develop the majority language and to assimilate students into the majority culture.

In California, the Committee to Draft Criteria for Bilingual Teacher Competencies stated that "Such a person shall be fluent in the primary language and be familiar with the cultural heritage of the limited-English speaking pupils in the bilingual classes he or she conducts." (State Board of Education, 1977). In defining the language proficiency competencies for bilingual teachers, California further broke them down into areas such a (1) understanding, speaking, reading, and writing, and (2) understanding of dialectical variations. Not only was stress placed upon bilinguality and biliteracy in all aspects of instruction, but also on the teacher's interaction with the students, parents, community, colleagues, and administration (State Board of Education, 1977). Needless to say, many teachers were not competent to this degree.

In 1974, Congress amended the BEA to include funds exclusively for bilingual education programs and defined such programs as those which used the native language as a medium of instruction in the classroom. Then, in 1978, the statute increased the program's emphasis on the mastery of English. Both of the amendments made provisions for teacher training programs, technical assistance and evaluation centers, materials development projects, and research activities (Ambert & Melendez, 1985).

The initial infusion of bilingual teachers into the field included those teachers who had not received formal training in the native language. In addition, the assessment of the teacher's language proficiencies was minimal. Nor were there standards set to evaluate the high degree of language competence needed to provide instruction in all areas of the curriculum. Waivers were given by school districts to teachers who agreed to learn a new language and to complete other certification requirements.

The first federal teacher training grants were awarded to institutions of higher education (IHEs) in 1967-68. The initial training grants were for providing bilingual certification for teachers already in the field. The first fellowships provided by Title VII for bilingual teacher education were awarded in 1974-75 (Johnson and Brinkly, 1987). Universities, up to this point, had not developed teacher training programs, criteria nor competencies for bilingual education teachers, methodology and, much less a curriculum. Needless to say, there was not a faculty in place to develop the curriculum, conduct the research, develop the theories, nor to do the training.

With limited Title VII funds, pressure grew at the state level to enact local bilingual education legislation to meet the needs of limited-English



Proficient (LEP) children (Ambert and Melendez, 1985). Most states did not respond to the training needs of bilingual teachers until the start of federal funding for Title VII teacher education programs (Santiago-Santiago, 1983). As a consequence, since teacher certification is one of their responsibilities, states have influenced the development of the criteria for bilingual teachers.

Title VII teacher training felle vships have dwindled over the years especially since the Reagan years. He de-emphasized native language instruction when he stated:

Now, bilingual education, there is a need, but there is also a purpose that has been distorted again at the federal level. Where there are predominantly students speaking a foreign language at home, coming to school and being taught English, and they fall behind or are unable to keep up in so many subjects because of the lack of knowledge of the language, I think it is proper that we have teachers equipped who can get at them in their own language and understand why it is they don't get the answer to get the problem and help them in that way. But it is absolutely wrong and against American concepts to have a bilingual education program that is now openly, admittedly dedicated to preserving their native language and never getting them adequate in English so they can go out into the job market and participate (as quoted in Crawford, 1989, p. 43).

Each reauthorization bill since 1984 has diminished the role of native language instruction in funding programs, the consequence of the defunding is that the number of teacher training fellowship programs awarded to teacher training institutions has been reduced. The reduction affected the development of teacher training programs in IHEs since more than half of them received Title VII funds (RMC, 1981). Title VII funds allowed for faculty; research; program development: identification methodologies and strategies; provision for language training; the development of language proficiency measures; and other components for training bilingual personnel.

# Development of bilingual education teacher competencies

Since 1971, California state legislation dealing with bilingual education has cited the critical need for bilingual teachers who are competent in the methodologies for teaching limited and non-English-speaking children. The California Department of Education was directed to "develop and recommend to the Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing standards for the certification of teaching personnel for bilingual classes." The section that describes the standard follows:



"Bilingual-crosscultural teacher" means a person who (1) holds a valid regular California teaching credential, and (2) holds either a bilingual or a bilingual-crosscultural specialist credential. Such a person shall be fluent in the primary language and familiar with the cultural heritage crosscultural certificate of proficiency or other credential in bilingual education authorized by the Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing of the limited-English speaking pupils in the bilingual classes he or she conducts. Such a person shall have a professional working knowledge of the methodologies which must be employed to effectively educate these pupils. "Bilingual-crosscultural teacher aide" means an aide fluent in both English and the primary language of the limited-Engl'sh speaking pupil or pupils in a bilingual-bicultural program. Such an aide shall be familiar with the cultural heritage of the limited-English speaking pupils in the bilingual classes to which he or she is assigned (E.C. 5767.2(h)(i)).

By June 1976, 11 states had adopted bilingual teacher certification or other special requirements for those persons teaching in bilingual settings. The trend toward establishing competency-based standards by which to assess bilingual teachers had begun (Waggoner,1977). In New York, the Aspira Consent Decree of August 1974, specifically stated that:

For eligible students, instruction for promotion and graduation must be offered in Spanish. The decree also mandates programs designed to develop children's ability to speak, read, write and understand English. It specifically rejects immersion as a technique of second-language acquisition and forbids pull-out programs. So that segregation will not occur, students in the program must spend classroom time with students outside the programs as their education needs permit. Materials used in the program must reflect, where appropriate, the culture of the children involved. Recognizing the need for additional competent personnel, the decree calls for affirmative teacher recruitment and specifies the necessary teacher qualifications (p. 27).

States have had particular influence on licensing and certifying bilingual teachers. However, states have been slow to respond to the training needs of bilingual teachers. Most states did not respond until the 1970s, following the start of federal funding for Title VII teacher education programs (Santiago-Santiago, 1983).

Bilingual education programs up to this point were described but the competencies that teachers should demonstrate were largely implied; though, in some cases, the knowledge and skills that bilingual teachers should have were stated. The Center for Applied Linguistics in 1974 produced an explicit and comprehensive list of teacher competencies for the bilingual education teacher. It identified the critical areas in which bilingual education teachers should have



expertise. They offered eight categories: language proficiency linguistics, culture, instructional methods, curriculum utilization, adaptation, assessment, school-community relations, and supervised teaching. Carrillo in 1977 listed the following criteria for secondary school programs for Spanish speaking students: language, history and culture, professional preparation, and school community relations. In 1978, the U.S. Office of Bilingual Education published Competencies for University Programs in Bilingual Education, which listed language proficiency, course of study in bilingual education that included the use of materials and instructional practices for bilingual education, and school/community practices. Most guidelines for competency development or training occurred before research or evaluation of practice in bilingual programs was performed.

Competency statements are generally derived from several sources, including a research base, conceptual models of effective teaching, the professional experience of teachers and teacher trainers, and the goals of a particular training institution. Since research, teacher training and program funds for bilingual education were not allocated until the midseventies, most early lists of competencies were developed without the proper framework. Rodriguez (1980), in her preliminary study to isolate the characteristics of effective bilingual teachers, defined the following competencies: (1) positive regard, (2) non-authoritarianism, (3) self-confidence, (4) communication skill, (5) varied methodology, and (6) cultural knowledge. Most guidelines stressed that bilingual teachers should possess competencies in the following areas: (a) language proficiency, (b) the field of bilingual education, (c) linguistic theory, (d) culture, (e) pedagogy with emphasis on bilingual education and assessment, and (f) school and community relations, in addition to having knowledge of research (RMC, 1981).

Numerous factors contribute to the successful implementation of bilingual education programs, and experience has shown that the quality of the teaching staff is particularly important. Well prepared bilingual teachers and staff who speak the native language and understand the home culture appear to have the most direct influence on the cognitive and affective growth of students whose primary language is other than English.

# Language Proficiency

Cummins (1980) believes that teachers and education policy makers must understand language proficiency if they are to make wise decisions about the roles of the first and second languages in the classroom. He says that there are two dimensions of proficiency: a social dimension, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS); and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS is acquired relatively quickly. It begins to emerge after the silent period; however, the development of CALP requires several years and is



essential for academic achievement. CALP developed in any language facilitates the acquisition of other languages and the transfer of reading and writing skills from one language to another. The language proficiency issue for both students and teachers must be carefully understood. Effective instruction requires the use of the native language of language minority students. Teachers must understand the role of the native language and the impact of its use in helping language minority students meet the goal of learning the second language.

Compounding the issue of the use of the native language with the LEP student is the issue of the language ability of the teacher. Ada (1986) explains that native language ability may cause the bilingual teacher to feel less competent in the classroom. Both non-native and native speakers may feel this inadequacy. English-speaking teachers may not have had the opportunity to acquire full mastery of a second language. Neither native nor non-native speakers may have the cognitive academic use of the language to be able to teach in the "context-reduced, cognitively demanding activities of reading, writing, mathematics, science, and other school subjects" as explained by Cummins (1981). Ada (1986) states:

Members c language minorities who chose to become bilingual teachers may also have been victims of language oppression as children, when they were scolded or punished in school for using home language. (p.390). Other native language speaking teachers, who come to the United States as adolescents or adults, may feel similar inadequacy in terms of their English language mastery.

According to Blanco (1977), proficiency in the students' home language is not only an essential competency for the bilingual education teacher but also a basic one. In his 1975 study, Blanco found that within the teaching profession, teachers who are bilingual as a result of having spoken a language other than English in the home usually cannot use it for instructional purposes unless they have had extensive formal training in the four skills and in the technical vocabulary of the different subject areas.

It was not surprising to find in the American Institutes for Research (AIR) report in 1978 and in the 1984 Developmental Associates national study, that only half of the "bilingual" teachers interviewed admitted being able to speak a second language. Again, a teacher's language proficiency in the mother tongue affects the quality of education for LEP students. It is not quantity but the quality of native language instruction that will ensure a students' attainment of conceptual knowledge (Lindholm, 1990). Crawford (1989) asks the following questions: Does the program use the mother tongue to provide translations or to cultivate cognitive-academic language proficiency? Is contextual information taught in the native language in order to facilitate the



acquisition of English? Do teachers employ strategies that encourage the transfer of academic skills from one language to the other?

## **Cultural Sensitivity**

Lemberger (1990) supports the assumption that culture plays a big part in how teachers teach and how they can affect children in either a positive or negative way. Experiences in learning a second language and learning another culture will facilitate teachers interactions with their students' learning experience. Competent teachers understand that positive self-concept and positive identification with one's culture is the basis for academic success. They must possess the skills necessary to validate the culture of their students and help them develop a positive sense of self. Concerned educators have long observed with dismay the low achievement levels and high dropout rates of large number of minorities.

As far back as 1968, Cardenas and Cardenas hypothesized that these conditions were caused by the incompatibilities between the characteristics of minority children and the values of the schools. They documented five major student characteristics as potential problem areas: poverty, culture, language, mobility and perceptions. They observed that the culture and language of minority children was not valued by school or society. In addition, their observation was that school and society perceived minority students to be "culturally deprived." Lemberger (1990) observed that teachers' success with students was enhanced by their cultural connection with the community. Cultural expression and cultural sensitivity can be fostered through direct contact with the culture. Cultural sensitivity is a result of understanding the culture of the school/community population through directed cultural experience.

# Techniques to Empower Students

Jim Cummins (1986) of Canada posited a theoretical framework for the empowerment of minority children. The central tenet of his framework is that "students from 'dominated' societal groups are 'empowered' or 'disabled' as a direct result of their interactions with educators in the schools" (p.21). Further, he theorized that the extent to which the culture and language of minority students is validated, respected, and incorporated into the curriculum has a mediating influence on student outcomes. He cites the considerable research evidence linking academic success to the degree of cultural/linguistic incorporation. Cummins characterizes the incorporation of minority students' language and culture "along an additive-subtractive' dimension":

Educators who see their role as adding a second language and cultural affiliation to their students' repertoire are likely to empower students



more than those who see their role as replacing or subtracting students' primary language and culture (p.25).

Teaching with confidence and competence requires that teachers believe in themselves and their ability to teach minority students who are linguistically/dialectically and culturally different. To do less is to disable them.

Lindholm (1990) lists criteria that are essential for successful dual language programs:

- (1) Duration of instructional treatment. The instructional treatment is provided to the participating students for a period of at least four to six years. This is the amount of time required, on average, to reach second-language or bilingual proficiency, but not necessarily nativelike proficiency, as confirmed by a number of evaluation studies on immersion and bilingual programs (Cummins, 1981; Krashen & Biber, 1988; Swain, 1984; Troike, 1978).
- (2) Focus on academic curriculum. The programs are designed to focus on subject matter as well as language development. Students are exposed to the same high-quality, academic core curriculum as students in regular programs. For native English speakers, academic achievement is attained primarily through second-language (L2) content instruction and interactions in the first language (L1) at home and in the community. Academic achievement is further bolstered by content taught through English. For language minority students, instruction in and through the native language forms the basis for initial academic advancement. Academic achievement and English language proficiency are further developed through English language arts and content instruction through English.
- (3) Optimal language input and output. Optimal input has four characteristics: (a) It is adjusted to the comprehension level of the learner, (b) it is interesting and relevant, (c) there is sufficient quality, and (d) it is challenging. This is accomplished through communicatively sensitive language instruction and subject matter presentation. In the early stages of second-language acquisition, input is made more comprehensible through the use of slower, more expanded, simplified, and repetitive speech oriented to the "here and now" (Krashen, 1981; Long, 1980); highly contextualized language and gestures (Long, 1980); and communication structured so that is provides scaffolding for the negotiation of meaning by L2 students by constraining possible interpretations of sequence, role, and intent (Saville-Troike, 1987).

Balanced with the need to make the second language more comprehensible is the necessity for providing stimulating language input (Swain, 1987), particularly for the native speakers of each language. There are two reasons why students need stimulating language input. First, such input serves



to facilitate continued development of language structures and skills. Second, when students are instructed in their first language, the content of their lessons becomes more comprehensible when they are then presented with similar content in the second language.

- (4) Separation of languages for instruction. Studies of bilingual education programs indicate that monolingual lesson delivery (i.e., different periods of time devoted to instruction in and through each of the two languages, respectively is superior to designs that rely on language mixing during a single lesson or time frame (Baker & de Kanter, 1981; Dulay & Burt, 1978; Legaretta, 1979, 1981; Swain, 1983). This is not to say that language mixing itself is harmful; rather, it appears that sustained periods of monolingual instruction in each language require students to actively attend to the instruction and result in improved language development and subject matter attainment.
- (5) Ratio of English to the non-English language use. Immersion education was designed to promote high levels of second-language proficiency while maintaining first-language proficiency. Although there are several program variations, many traditional full immersion programs utilize the non-English language for 100 percent of the instructional day and English is not used at all for at least the initial stages of the program. Other partial immersion programs involve equal amounts of English and the non-English instruction for both language minority and majority students.
- (6) Additive bilingual environment. All students are provided the opportunity to acquire a second language at no cost to their home language and culture. This "enrichment bilingualism" results in high levels of proficiency in the two languages (Hernandez-Chavez, 1984; Skuttnabb-Kangas, 1981), adequate self-esteem, and improved crosscultural attitudes (Lambert, 1987). Conversely, subtractive bilingual contexts, in which the native language is replaced by a second language, seem to have negative effects on the school performance of many language minority students. Native language loss is often associated with lower levels of second-language attainment, scholastic underachievement, and psychosocial disorders (Lambert, 1984). Successful language development programs seem not only to prevent the negative consequences of subtractive bilingualism but also to effectively promote the beneficial aspects of additive bilingualism.
- (7) A positive school environment. Research indicates that the success of bilingual education programs is dependent on the level of support the program receives from the school administration (Cortes, 1986; Troike, 1978). Drawing on this research, then, a successful bilingual immersion program should have the support of the principal and other administrators and non-bilingual immersion staff. This support is based on a knowledge of the program and is demonstrated through a desire for the program to succeed by an



expenditure of resources that is comparable to other education programs in the school, by devoting attention to promoting acceptance of the program among the community and other school staff, and by closely integrating the structure and function of the bilingual immersion program with the total school program (Troike, 1978).

- (8) Classroom composition. Little research has been conducted to determine the best classroom composition for bilingual education programs. To maintain an environment of educational and linguistic equity in the classroom, and to promote interactions among native and non-native English speakers, the most desirable ratio is 50 percent English speakers to 50 percent non-native English speakers. However, the ratio of English speakers to non-native English speakers may exceed this ratio in the early grades to ensure that there are enough language models of each language to allow for attrition and the almost impossible replacement of native speakers of English.
- (9) Positive interdependence and reciprocal interactive instruction climate. The promotion of positive and interdependent interactions between teachers and students, and between language minority and majority student peers, is an important instructional objective. When teachers use positive social and instructional interactions in equal amounts with both minority and majority students, both groups perform better academically (California State Department of Education, 1982; Kerman et al., 1980). In addition, teachers should adopt a reciprocal interaction model instead of adhering to the traditional transmission model of teaching (Cummins, 1986). The basic premise of the transmission model is that the teacher's task is to impart knowledge or skills to students who do not yet have these abilities. In the reciprocal interaction approach, teachers participate in genuine dialogue with pupils and facilitate rather than control student learning. This model encourages the development of higher-level cognitive skills rather than just factual recall (Cummins, 1986). Finally, language development is facilitated by extensive interactions among native and non-native speakers (Long & Porter, 1985).
- (10) High-quality instructional personnel. Students receive their instruction from certified teachers. Over the course of the program, students are exposed to teachers who have native or nativelike ability in either or both of the languages in which they are instructing. Teachers, although bilingual, may assume monolingual roles when interacting with students. It is important that the teacher be able to understand the child's mother tongue in the initial stages of language learning. If the teacher does not understand the native language, then he or she cannot respond appropriately in the second language to the children's utterances in their native language. In this case, comprehensible input may be severely impaired (Swain, 1985). Further, teachers should be knowledgeable with regard to the curriculum level and how to teach it.



(11) Home-school collaboration. Another important feature is parental involvement and collaboration with the school. When parent-school partner-ships are formed, parents often develop a sense of efficacy that communicates itself to children, with positive academic consequences, especially in the case of language minority children (Met, 1987; Tizard, Schofield, & Hewison, 1982). In fact, most parents of minority students have high aspirations for their children and want to be involved in promoting their academic success (Lindholm, 1988; Wong-Fillmore, 1983). Often parents of language minority children are able to fulfill this role more effectively through their native language (Dolson, 1985b) in interactions involving literacy and other academically related topics.

If these, then are the features of successful bilingual education programs and of effective schools, these features should form the basis for effective teacher training models. Good teacher training programs should incorporate developing the teacher's cognitive academic language proficiency, and cultural sensitivity along with the competencies necessary for implementing effective dual language programming.

The organization of the remainder of this paper will based on Cummin's Empowering Minority Students (1989). The premise is that the following sets of relationships or contexts can effectively impact students as well as disable

them:

- cultural/linguistic incorporation,
- community participation,
- pedagogy, and
- assessment.

These relationships or contexts will form the focus for defining the competencies needed for teaching in multicultural and bilingual settings. Each of the relationships will be described in terms of the attitudes, knowledge, and skills as they relate to what every teacher should know and, what bilingual education teachers should know. The competencies should form the context for the training of teachers. In addition, teacher training programs should strive to develop the teachers' use of cognitive academic first and second language and incorporate a strong component to develop cultural sensitivity of the community addressed.

#### TEACHING COMPETENCIES

# Cultural/Linguistic Incorporation

The extent to which the minority students' language and culture is incorporated into the school program will serve as either an empowerment or disabling factor. The integration of cultural and linguistic aspects into



educational programming is based upon research which strongly indicates that this integration will impact academic success in a positive manner. The use of intensive first language instruction and cultural identification reinforcement develops a solid foundation for students and ensures school success (Lemberger, 1990; Lindholm, 1990; Cummins, 1989). The redefinition of teaching competencies and therefore, teacher training models to include minority students' language and culture in an empowerment role will have a more positive effect than just increasing second language proficiency (Cummins, 1990). Research indicates that positive cognitive benefits can result from acquiring a high level of proficiency in two or more languages.

Therefore, all teachers need to extend to students and parents, in powerful and varied ways, that the school system values language and cultural diversity. All teachers must have the following attitudes, knowledge, and skills in order to teach students in multicultural settings. Knowledge and skills that are necessary for training teachers to work with limited-English proficient students are identified by brackets at the end of each section.

#### Attitudes

- awareness of own cultural values;
- awareness and acceptance of cultural differences;
- a positive attitude toward cultural diversity;
- a positive attitude toward socioeconomic differences;
- a positive attitude toward linguistic differences;
- a positive attitude toward different cultural communities; and
- a positive attitude toward minority parents and community members.

## Knowledge

- have a strong background in the social sciences, particularly cultural anthropology;
- have a background in linguistics;
- have a background in history with an understanding of different ethnic and national groups histories;
- understand the complexity of first and second language acquisition;
- understand the relationships between language and culture and speakers of those languages;
- understand the art of communications;
- have knowledge of the multidimensional and geographical cultural diversity of the United States;
- have field experience in school settings that reflect racial, cultural, and economic diversity;



 have knowledge of issues, such as participatory democracy, racism/sexism, values clarification;

understand the history and culture of the major ethnic

groups,

have knowledge of human relations, including intergroup relations;

have proficiency in English and target language;

 have knowledge of first and second language acquisition and language learning;

have knowledge of linguistics to include both the psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic aspects;

have knowledge of the ways in which L1 culture and L2 culture differ;

have awareness of dialectic differences:

 have awareness of differences between L1/L2 ability to apply to teaching; and

 have knowledge of the difference between communicative competence and academic learning competence in the second language.

#### Skills

- ability to integrate cultural components into all aspects of the instructional program;
- ability to instruct in an oral language developmental mode;
- ability to utilize higher level thinking skills with all students;
- ability to understand and affect the influence of sociocultural variables on the learning and achievement of all students;
- ability to teach decision making and social action skills;
- ability to facilitate students', parents' and community members' involvement;
- ability to provide instruction to promote primary oral language and literacy development;
- ability to use major methodologies for primary language literacy instruction;
- ability to provide comprehensible second language input;
- ability to integrate the primary cultures throughout the curriculum;
- ability to use sociocultural variables to enhance the learning and achievement of LEP students;
- ability to adapt materials for use in bilingual education classrooms;
- ability to instruct students in English and target language in all subject matter;



- ability to incorporate sound management systems for students of varying levels of proficiency and academic experience;
   and
- ability to use social action skills and decision making activities in both languages.

## Community Participation

The involvement of minority parents in a collaborative partnership with the school translates into positive academic results for their children. Parental involvement becomes even more important for parents of children who are linguistically and culturally different. Teachers have tended to view these parents as apathetic and as uncooperative (Bermudez, Padron, 1987). However, this lack of parental involvement among Hispanics, in particular, has been attributed by Blanco (1978) to the following: (a) work interference, (b) lack of confidence, (c) lack of English language skills, and (d) lack of understanding of the home-school partnership.

Bermudez and Padron (1987) state that the rationale for the development of a minority parental involvement component is based on several factors:
(a) parents are very influential in their children's development, (b) many parents have not been successful in meeting their responsibilities due to the lack of knowl adge about parenting and schooling, and (c) schools are not doing an adequate job in disseminating knowledge.

As parents develop a sense of self-identity and self-worth, they communicate these valid feelings to their children. Collaboration efforts result in students with increased interest in learning and better behavior. Teachers should, therefore, enhance experience for parents in the schools.

#### Attitudes

- believe that parents possess abilities to help their children in school:
- value as meaningful the experiences of all children;
- believe that home environments, no matter how poor, are sources of care and concern for children and that family concern can be translated into practical support for children and for schools;
- accept the significant force that all parents are in their children's education;
- accept that all parents have a combination of skills, insights, talents and concerns that are viable for the education process;



- accept that all parents can learn and can teach;
- accept that parents can directly impact children's education process;
- accept that parents' attitudes toward schools can improve;
   and
- accept that parents have a role in the school and in the classroom.

## Knowledge

- awareness of parental involvement research;
- awareness of parent-school collaborative efforts;
- awareness of minority parents; sociocultural values;
- awareness of school resources;
- understanding of cultural child rearing practices;
- understanding of the differences between school and home;
- knowledge of specific parental training models;
- knowledge of differential parental approaches;
- knowledge of home language and culture.
- ability to relate with parents and community members;
- ability to conduct meaningful meetings with parents;
- ability to use parents as tutors;
- ability to develop activities that relate to the community;
- ability to develop programs that provide for various modes of parental and community participation;
- ability to develop programs that supplement and reinforce the development of academic skills with work in the home;
- ability to develop parent community relationships from prekindergarten to high school;
- ability to develop leadership qualities in parents;
- ability to train parents to use resources that they can manipulate:
- ability to develop specific home training activities;
- ability to use parents as teachers in the classroom;
- ability to speak the home language;
- ability to give the parents specific strategies and skills;
- ability to select or adapt materials that parents can use;
- ability to develop either home-based or school-based programs; and
- ability to develop home-school communications in the target language.



## **PEDAGOGY**

Research on teaching has evolved from perceiving teacher effectiveness to be a consequence of certain personality traits to the current view that teacher effectiveness results from mastering a repertoire of competencies and knowing when to use these (Medley, 1979). Similarly, Hunter (1984) describes the "science of teaching", which is based on cause-effect relationships existing in three categories of decisions that all teachers deliberately make. These include: (1) content decision, (2) learner behavior decisions, and (3) teaching decisions.

The relationships existing among teacher behaviors, student behaviors and resulting student achievement have been sketched by Squires, Haitt and Segars (1984). Their description places great emphasis on: (1) the need for active student involvement in the lesson; (2) the importance of ascertaining students prior knowledge for setting the learning objective at the right level of difficulty; and (3) the role of a high student success rate in increasing academic achievement.

Medley (1977) distinguished between effective teaching behaviors for different groups of students. He found, for example, that effective teachers of disadvantaged pupils in the primary grades had the following characteristics: (1) provided more praise and positive motivation while spending less time on criticism, pupil rebukes or attending to deviant behavior; (2) spent more class time on teacher-directed, large group or whole class activity and less time on independent work; (3) asked more lower cognitive (factual) questions; and (4) monitored students when they were working independently.

In the area of bilingual education, several researchers have examined the question: What constitutes effective instruction for bilingual students? Two issues where educators and researchers agree involves the question of which language should be used to introduce initial reading and the question of when to transfer students into English reading. Educators and researchers agree that initial reading should be introduced in students' native language (Modiano, 1973; Rosier, 1977; Troike, 1978). Similarly, Goodman, Goodman, and Flores (1979) point out that literacy in the first language promotes learning to read in the second language. They recommend waiting for students' reading achievement in the first language to solidify prior to beginning the teaching of reading in the second language.

Tikunoff and Vasquez-Faria (1982) identified five instructional features which were significant to effective instruction for limited English proficient students: (1) active teaching, (2) using both the native language and the second language for instruction, (3) integrating English language development with academic skills, (4) using cultural referents, and (5) communicating a high sense of self-efficacy and high student expectations.



To develop students' language proficiency, teachers must plan carefully and deliberately structure the instructional environment. For speech to work as input for the language learner, it must have been adjusted and modified for the sake of the learners in ways much like a mother would do for their young children. Adjustments could include clearer enunciations, the use of concrete references, use of less complex structures, use of repetitions and rephrasing and the accompaniment of gestures and other cues to meaning. Furthermore, it is recommended that speakers use structures slightly above students; present level of linguistic competence such that students can use context to decode meaning (Krashen, 1980). It is similarly preferable to group students heterogeneously so students can have access to language models.

Morley (1937) developed a state-of-the-art synopsis about current directions for teaching English to speakers of other languages. She identified eleven features. These included a focus on active learning, the communicative use of language including the functions of language not just its form, extensive verbal interaction among learners and higher order thinking. Morley recommends increased sensitivities to second language learners and creative use of technology in the teaching of English to second language learners.

Karen Webb (1987) offers some guidelines for improving reading skills among dialect-dominant students. These strategies may also be modified for LEP students, whether or not the teacher is bilingual.

- 1. Become familiar with features of the students' dialect. This will allow the teacher to better understand students and to recognize a reading miscue (a noncomprehension feature) from a comprehension error.
- 2. Use visual aids to enhance comprehension. Visual images, whether pictures or words, will aid word recognition and comprehension.
- 3. Allow students to retell the story or passage in various speech styles.
- 4. Integrate reading, speaking, and writing skills whenever possible.
- 5. Use the microcomputer (if available) as a time-on-task exercise, which is extremely important to skills development.

For this paper, teaching skills identified in the research literature have been reviewed in terms of their applicability for minority and special students. These competencies are divided into three categories: attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Teaching skills are further subdivided into three areas: curriculum, methodology and classroom management.



#### Attitudes

To be successful, teachers assigned to provide instruction to special populations of students must at a minimum possess two basic beliefs about the teaching/learning situation: (1) they need to believe that such students are capable of learning, and (2) they must believe themselves to be capable of teaching students with special needs, i.e., they must have a high sense of self-efficacy.

Inexperienced teachers have been known to attribute a lower than average intelligence to students who may be limited English proficient, speak with a marked accent, or look and dress differently than they do. Researchers like Brophy and Goodman (1979) have shown a strong relationship between teachers' expectations, their actual behavior in classrooms and students' subsequent performance in class. The effective teacher:

- believes usat all students can learn;
- believes that students can/will be influenced;
- views the role of the teacher as a facilitator of learning;
- has high expectations for student learning;
- respects/accepts the varied lifestyles of students and their families; and
- knows and is committed to the theory and philosophy of bilingual education.

## Knowledge

Teachers assigned to instruct minority students must possess knowledge about learning styles, motivation and specific educational approaches. The effective teacher:

- is familiar with the content expected to be taught in the grade level assigned;
- is aware of school district procedures for requesting curriculum materials;
- understands the relationship among language, culture and cognition;
- has knowledge about human relations, including intergroup relations;
- understands the concepts of culture and cultural differences;
- is familiar with the concepts of equal educational opportunity, discrimination, racism, sexism;
- possesses basic information about differences in student learning styles;



 understands that students from various ethnic groups respond differently to teachers' efforts to apply motivational, disciplinary, and reward systems;

possesses knowledge of the history/culture of the student

population in their school and classroom;

• knows the rationales, philosophies, and objectives of bilingual education;

 knows major federal and state legal legislative mandates, guidelines and policies regarding bilingual education, sex equity and race desegregation;

is proficient in speaking, reading and writing the English

language and the students' native language;

 understands the process of language acquisition and methods of language teaching; and

 has information about language content, language varieties and code-switching.

### SKILLS: CURRICULUM

Teachers working with minority students and students whose first language is not English can expect to encounter varying levels of achievement. To ensure success, teachers need to be able to provide assistance at the appropriate level of difficulty. Furthermore, they need to take this information into account as they make plans for content coverage and decisions about pacing lessons. The effective teacher:

- plans early in the year for the content to be covered during the school year;
- reviews and revises plans dependent on student progress;
- examines historical data on student achievement;
- conducts task analysis to ascertain prerequisite skills;
- acquires materials for promoting oral language interaction among students;
- adapts instructional material to include contributions from particular ethnic groups; and
- acquires curriculum materials that are linguistically relevant.

## SKILLS: METHODOLOGY

Effective teachers practice certain behaviors. These behaviors help bring about a learning climate conducive to learning where students are actively engaged in their learning, smooth transitions occur between activities and little time is spent on misbehavior. The effective teacher:



selects learning objectives at the right level of difficulty;

communicates high expectations;

secures and maintains students' attention during the lesson;

 implements active teaching where the teacher articulates learning goals, actively assesses student progress, and frequently makes class presentations and demonstrations for students on how to do assigned work (in subjects where this is an appropriate approach);

uses cultural referents;

provides clear presentations with examples;

maintains students' active engagement in the lesson;

monitors student success in the lesson;

holds students accountable for their work;

paces lesson for success;

- teaches vocabulary and concept development as well as provides "prior knowledge" assumed by authors of classroom texts:
- promotes extensive oral language development by posing questions in an open-ended manner and providing prompts that elicit elaboration;

periodically schedules review of previously learned material;

 conducts controlled practice over new material prior to assigning independent work;

checks for students' understanding of the assignment;

- asks questions which students can answer with high rates of success;
- provides adequate wait time for student responses;

asks questions that require higher level thinking;

• is empathetic toward students' concerns or fears; considers students' feelings, emotions, and perceptions;

praises students for actual achievement and work well done;

provides positive, corrective feedback;

probes, rephrases, or prompts students when they give incorrect responses to the question;

creates a positive classroom climate;

refrains from using sarcasm;

uses the native language and English for instruction; and

integrates English language development with academic skills.

## SKILLS: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Teachers planning to serve students with varied backgrounds and academic skills need to possess effective classroom management skills. They must determine the numbers of groups they will serve in any one school period



and determine who will be a member in each of these. Further, teachers are expected to rotate groups and make smooth transitions. Because teachers may need additional time to cover the instructional material (due to a greater need for explaining vocabulary and/or for providing background knowledge), the effective use of time becomes an even greater concern than it does in other classrooms.

Similarly, the idea of holding students accountable for their work becomes part of a concerted effort needed to convey the idea to students that the teacher expects them to learn and to complete work assignments. The effective teacher:

- sets classroom rules and procedures and teaches them to students;
- consistently enforces classroom rules;
- holds students accountable for their work;
- considers the following factors in relation to lesson design: (2) attention span of students, (b) relation of lesson content to students' interests, (c) appropriate work standards, and (d) assurance of reasonably high level of student success;
- secures students' attention prior to beginning the lesson and maintains it throughout the lesson;
- makes smooth transitions between activities and time periods; and
- insures students have equal opportunities to respond and be active in the lesson.

#### Assessment

Too often, assessment has served to identify students as not fitting the role designated by the school. It has served in a "disabling" manner because of a deficit model approach where the focus is on finding the deficiencies in the student.

The role of assessment must also evaluate the social and educational environment of the student. Nondiscriminatory assessment coupled with improved teaching methods based on a determination of the inadequacies of the existing methods will result in a more functional role for the school system. System-wide changes can be the result of the re-examination of the testing approach.



Teachers of minority students must possess extensive knowledge in the area of assessment, ranging from knowledge of specific content to knowledge of when and how to seek additional knowledge. They must apply this knowledge in ways which are compatible with the needs and characteristics of minority children. With regard to assessment, teachers must view learning as the guiding principle and assessment as a tool.

#### Attitudes

#### Effective teachers must:

- believe that teaching and learning cannot be constrained by the current limitations of psychometry and assessment,
- believe that assessment is a way of enhancing the learning process; it is not an end in itself nor is it a way of punishing, labeling, or permanently grouping children.

## Knowledge

## Effective teachers must:

- be familiar with current legal mandates (federal, state, and local) regarding assessment;
- know that measurement, i.e., the application of a standard to a set of data, is an inexact science that precludes using any one measure or number to make decisions about students;
- know that assessment is a diagnostic and prescriptive process which includes measurement, teacher judgments, informal observations, priorities and context;
- understand the relationship between curriculum and tests, and the pitfalls of curriculum-test mismatch;
- know the appropriate use/role of particular tests and that appropriate interpretation must reflect the whole school context;
- be aware of the effect of test condition and environment on performance;
- be familiar with psychometric theory and the impact of test construction, item bias, norming groups, test interpretation,



language of the test etc., on the level of confidence with which tests can be used for diagnosis, identification and placement;

- must be aware of the major shift in both the education process and content of education that occurs in middle elementary grades when exiting students from special language in the primary grades; and
- understand the rationale for language assessment procedures and the criteria by which these procedures can be evaluated.

#### Skills.

#### Effective teachers must:

- use formal and informal tests and observation to assess and enhance student learning and progress;
- interpret standardized test scores in the context of the psychometric properties of the instrument itself, the conditions of administration and the degree to which the instrument matches curricular content;
- be able to utilize evaluation in order to create system-wide changes;
- be able to identity or develop and use assessment procedures
  which are sensitive to and enhances students skills, both basic
  and Ligher order skills;
- be able to identify or develop and use assessment procedures which can tap the progress and outcomes of different learning modes, including cooperative learning;
- be able to teach test taking strategies in order to facilitate andreduce the anxiety of the testing situation; and
- be able to determine a student's readiness to function successfully in an all-English classroom at the next level of schooling.

### **SUMMARY**

This paper describes the social, linguistic and cultural characteristics of the minority student in today's schools. It provides a basis for educational



practices and outlines competencies needed by teachers in multicultural settings.

The redefinition of teacher competenci<sup>~</sup> is based on the changing reality of the student population in our schools. The multicultural makeup of the schools requires that teachers possess the attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary for addressing the needs of students in today's schools.

Schools and teachers must know that their role is to empower students through the education process. In order to accomplish this goal, the schools need to recognize who their students are and what is needed in order to enhance learning for all students. Teacher competencies then need to be redefined based upon the contexts of incorporating cultural and linguistic aspects into the schools, the importance of the role of community participation, the expansion of pedagogy for multicultural schooling and the role of assessment.



## REFERENCES

Ada, A. F. (1986). Creative education for bilingual education teachers. Harvard Educational Review, 56.

Ambert, A. N. and Melendez, S. E. (1985). Bilingual education: A sourcebook. New York, Teachers College Press.

American Institutes for Research (1978). The identification and description of exemplary bilingual education programs. Palo Alto, CA.

August, D. and Garcia, E. E. (1988). Language minority education in the United States: Research, policy and practice. Springfield, IL. Charles C. Thomas.

Baker, A. K. and deKanter, A. (1981). Effectiveness of bilingual education: A review of the literature. Washi. n, DC: Office of Planning, Budget and Evaluation, US Department of Education.

Bermudez, A.B. and Padron, Y. (1987). Integrating parental education in teacher training programs: A workable model for language minority parents. Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 7.

Blanco, G. M. (1977). Competencies needed by bilingual education teachers. *Educational Leadership*, 35.

Brophy, J. E. (1979) Teacher behavior and student learning. Educational Leadership, 37.

California State Department of Education. (1977), (1982). Basic principles for the education of language minority students, an overview. Sacramento: Office of Bilingual Bicultural Education.

Castellanos, D. (1983). The best of two worlds: Bilingual bicultural education in the US. Trenton, NJ: New Jersey State Department of Education.

Carrillo, F. M. (1977). The development of a rationale and model program to prepare teachers. CA: R & E Research Associates.

Cortes, C.E. (1986). The education of language minority students: Beyon-language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students. Los Angeles, California State University.



Crawford, J. (1989). Bilingual education: History, politics, theory, and practice. Trenton, NJ: Crane.

Cummins, J. (1980). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of children. Review of Educational Research, 49.

Cummins, J. (1986). Empowering minority students: A framework for intervention. Harvard Educational Review, 56.

Cummins, J. (1990). Empowering minority students: A framework for intervention. California Association for Bilingual Education.

Dolson, D. (1982). Bilingualism and scholastic performance: The literature revisited. NABE Journal, 10.

Dulay, H. and Burt, M. (1978). From research to method in bilingual education. *International dimensions of bilingual education*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Goodman, L., Goodman, Y. and Flores, B. Reading in the Bilingual Classroom Literacy and Biliteracy, Rosslyn, VA. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1979.

Hernandez-Chavez, E. (1984). The inadequacy of English immersion as an educational approach for language minority students. Studies on immersion education: A collection for US educators. Sacramento: California State Department of Education.

Hunter, B. (1984). Policy issues in special education for migrant students. Exceptional Children, 48.

Intercultural Development Research Association (1990). The return of minority and first-year teachers in critical shortage areas: A collegial model for experienced and beginning teachers. Texas: IDRA Newsletter, 5.

Intercultural Development Research Association (1988). Teacher competencies for a multicultural society. Texas: Unpublished paper.

Johnson, D. M. and Brinkly, J. L. (1987). Characteristics of faculty and directors of university bilingual programs. Unpublished manuscript in personal file.

Kerman, S. (1980). Teacher expectations and student achievement. Downey, CA; Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of School.



Krashen, S. and Biber, D. (1988). On course bilingual education success in California. Sacramento: California Association for Bilingual Education.

Krashen, S. (1981) Bilingual education and second language. Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework. Los Angeles: California State University.

Lambert, J. (1984). An overview of issues in immersion education. Studies in immersion education: A collection for US educators. Sacramento: California State Department of Education.

Lemberger, N. (1990). Bilingual education: Teachers' voices. Unpublished dissertation. New York: Teachers College.

Legaretta, D. (1979). The effects of program models on language acquisition by Spanish-speaking children. TESOL Quarterly, 8.

Lindholm, K. (1990). Bilingual immersion education. Bilingual Education: Issues and Strategies. Newbury Park: Sage.

Long, M. H. and Porter, P. A. (1985). Group, interlanguage talk, and second language acquisition. TESOL Quarterly, 19.

Modiano, N. (1968). National or mother tongue language in beginning reading: a comparative study. Research in the Teaching of English, 2.

Morley, J. (1987). Current Perspectives in Pronunciation Practices: practices anchord in theory, Washington, D.C. Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Medley, D. M. (1977). Teacher competence and teacher effectiveness. Washington, DC: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

Ovando, C. J. and Collier, V. P. (1985). Bilingual and ESL classrooms. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Rodriguez, A. M. (1980). Empirically defining competencies for bilingual teachers: A preliminary study. Ethnoperspectives in bilingual education research: Theory in bilingual education. Ypsilanti, MI: East Lansing University.

Rosier, P. (1976). Bilingual education at Rock Point: Some early results TESOL Quarterly, 10.

RMC Research Corporation (1981). Framework of competencies for aides, teachers and teacher trainers in bilingual education. Mountain View, CA.



# RMC Report UR-474.

San Miguel, G. (1990). Clashing tongues: Towards a social history of school language policy in the 20th century. Unpublished article presented at the Summer Institute on Bilingual Bicultural Education Policy: New York: Teachers College.

Santiago-Santiago, I. (1983). Political and legal issues in maintaining vernacular in the cutriculum: The US experience. Multicultural education: A challenge for teachers. Holland: Foris Publications.

Saville-Troike, M. (1987). Bilingual discourse: The negotiation of meaning without a common code. *Linguistics*, 25.

Secada, W. G. (1990). English plus: Issues in bilingual education. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Newby: Sage.

Skuttnabb-Kangas, T. (1981) Bilingualism or not: The education of minorities. Multilingual Matters, 7.

Squires, D., Huitt W. and Segar, J. (1984) Effective Schools in Classrooms: A Research Based Perspective. Alexandria, VA. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Swain, M. (1984). A review of immersion education in Canada: Research and evaluation studies. Studies on immersion education: A collection for United States educators. Sacramento: California State Department of Education.

Texas Education Agency. (1983). LEP Update. Unpublished manuscript. Austin, TX: Texas Education Agency.

Tikunoff, W. J. and Vasquez-Faria, J.A. (1982). Successful instruction for bilingual schooling. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 52.

Troike, R. C. (1978). Research evidence for effectiveness of bilingual education. NABE Journal, 3.

Troike, R. C. (1981) Synthesis of research in bilingual education. Educational Leadership, 38.

Waggoner, D. (1977). State certification requirements for teachers for bilingual education programs. Washington, DC: National Center for Educational Statistics.

ER**Î**C

Waggoner, D. (1988). Undereducated Hispanic youth. Unpublished article. Washington, DC.

Webb, K. (1987). Raising achievement among minority students. A selected summary of successful research and instructional programs. Arlington, VA American Association of School Administrators.

Wong-Fillmore, L. (1983). The language learner as individual: Implications of research on individual differences for the ESL teacher. TESOL '82: Pacific perspectives on language learning and teaching. Washington, DC.

United States Department of Commerce (1988). The Hispanic population in the United States. Washington, DC: Bureau of the Census.

United States Code. Title 20. Bilingual Education Act.

